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ABSTRACT

Through a review of literature, this paper focuses on the development of a framework for the teaching of functional communication skills in grades six through nine. Following the introduction, the first section examines the context, purpose, and ability dimensions of oral communication as well as a model that combines all of these elements. The second section recounts the issues surrounding the definition of communication competence, while the third section addresses the issues of assessment of competence, including domain of competencies, measurement strategies, minority test bias, and criteria for instrument construction. The fourth section surveys the program goals and objectives of a variety of oral communication experts. In the hope of providing information useful for developing a curriculum that reflects the state of the art in oral communication, the fifth section outlines general instructional approaches to oral communication and presents specific methods and activities that can be used in oral communication instruction. Descriptions and examples of activities for functional communication, nonverbal communication, values clarification, referential communication games, and activities for assessment are all provided. The paper concludes that models for teaching oral communication should be process oriented. (JL)

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ORAL COMMUNICATION: THEORY, RESEARCH AND METHODS OF INSTRUCTION. A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.

Lori C. Monda

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Crossroads Basic Skills Improvement Program
California State University, Long Beach

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION.....1

I. DIMENSIONS OF ORAL COMMUNICATION.....5
A. Context Dimension.....9
B. Purpose Dimension.....15
C. Ability Dimension.....19
D. Another Model.....21

II. ORAL COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE.....23
A. Dimensions of Functional Communication Competence.....26

III. ASSESSMENT OF COMPETENCE.....33
A. Domain of Competencies.....35
B. Measurement Strategies.....36
C. Minority Test Bias.....40
D. Other Issues.....42

IV. PROGRAM GOALS AND OBJECTIVES.....49

V. METHODS FOR TEACHING ORAL COMMUNICATION.....61
A. General Approaches.....62
B. Specific Methods and Activities.....68
1. Functional Communication Activities.....69
2. Nonverbal Communication Activities.....73
3. Listening Activities.....76
4. Drama and Creative Play.....77
5. Values Clarification Strategies.....81
6. Referential Communication Games.....83
7. Assessment Activities.....85

CONCLUSION.....89

REFERENCES.....91

Oral Communication: Theory, Research and Methods of Instruction. A Review of the Literature.

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Student's attainment of basic educational skills, especially in the areas of math, reading and writing has been a concern of educators and legislators for many years. It has been only recently, however, that professionals have recognized that oracy* is also a basic skill which many graduates from the educational system are lacking.

A survey of department heads in colleges and universities across the U.S. found that although there was general agreement that oracy was important, "88% claimed that their students did not come to college with oral competency well developed" (Becker & Ekdom, 1979, p. 1).

In several surveys, college alumni and employees in business and industry identified oral communication as one of the most important skills for college graduates seeking employment. "Poor communication skills" was cited most often by potential employers as the reason why college graduates were not offered

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*A term coined in 1965 by Andrew Wilkinson to describe "general ability in the skills of speaking and listening" (Crocker, 1979, p. 1).

jobs (Becker & Ekdom, 1979).

In addition to career relevance, it has been determined that oral communication comprises over 70% of the average person's communication acts (45% listening; 30% speaking; 16% reading; 9% writing) (Rankin, 1926; in Mead, 1980), and that oral communication ability is linked to the development of reading, writing, mathematics and problem solving skills, to scholastic achievement, and to personal development (Brown, Backlund, Gurry & Jandt, 1979; Friedman, 1978; Lieb-Brilhart, 1979; Loban, 1963; Mead, 1980; Possien, 1969).

Despite the importance of oral communication to all aspects of a person's life, there have been few attempts to develop students' oral communication skills in the classroom. Because children are able to speak when they come to school, many educators have assumed that speaking and listening skills develop naturally and that no further instruction in oral communication is necessary. Instead, instructional focus is on the development of written communication skills (Bourke, 1979; Del Polito, 1980; Fitzgerald, 1979; Lieb-Brilhart, n.d.; Mead, 1980; Possien, 1969). When attention is given to oracy in schools, it has traditionally been an emphasis on teaching correct language usage (use of appropriate grammar, pronunciation, syntax, and intonation), or on listening and speaking in formal situations (public speaking, group discussion, debate, reporting, oral reading, rather than on the communication process in everyday life.) (Crocker, 1979;

Lieb-Brilhart, n.d.; Mead, 1980; Plattor, Unruh, Muir & Loose, 1979).

Ironically, though only limited formal instruction is given to students in listening and speaking, oral communication is a primary method of instruction in the classroom. Much information is transmitted verbally by the teacher, and students are often evaluated for their abilities to orally answer questions and give feedback.

The structure of communication within the classroom has been the subject of much research (Bellack, Hyman, Smith & Kliebard, 1966; Booner, 1979; Dunkin, 1979; Dunkin & Biddle, 1978; Neujahr, 1970). In the classroom, most of the speaking is done by the teacher who also initiates and controls the input of the students. The teacher's solicitations, usually in the form of closed questions, require responses from students which are generally limited to precise, content-specific bits of information (Booner, 1979; Dunkin, 1979).

It is rare for teachers to ask open questions, to allow students to explore a variety of means to the same end, to allow the language of the home or playground into the classroom, or to allow students to think aloud or initiate sequences of conversation (Booner, Richards & Zubrinich, 1978, in Booner, 1979, p.7). Thus, in addition to a lack of oral communication curriculum in the schools, there is also a lack of opportunity for varied oral communication practice within the classroom itself.

A recent interest in oral communication skills by researchers and theoreticians in the fields of linguistics, education, psychology and speech communication, as well as a redefinition of basic skills legislation to include oral communication in the Federal Basic Skills and Education Proficiency Program have resulted in a body of literature on oral communication. This literature addresses some of the following questions:

- What is oral communication?
- What are its components?
- What is oral communication competence?
- How does one assess competence?
- How can what is known about oral communication be applied to the classroom?

The following paper reviews the literature on oral communication. It is by no means a comprehensive review. The abundance of theoretical literature in linguistics dealing with acquisition of language codes and language development is mentioned only briefly. The focus of this paper is on the development of a framework for the teaching of functional oral communication skills which can be applied to learning situations with youth in grades six through nine.

DIMENSIONS OF ORAL COMMUNICATION

Much of the literature on oral communication represents attempts to define it and to know something about its structure and functions. The development of theory over the last 30 years has ranged from focus on the elements of speech, to focus on the qualities of the speaker and finally, to focus on oral communication as a dynamic interchange between speaker and listener influenced by a number of variables (Del Polito, 1980).

A basic and convenient starting point is the comparison between oral and written communication. On the most simplistic level, speaking and writing are defined as "productive skills" whose purposes are to transmit meaning. Listening and reading are grouped together as "receptive skills", and their primary function is seen as the comprehension of meaning (Mead, 1980).

Beyond these basic similarities, many distinctions are made between oral and written communication in regard to both form and function.

> Spoken language tends to be nonlinear, incomplete and redundant. Topics shift from subject to subject. Ideas are introduced but not completed. Information is repeated in several forms. Oral communication is ephemeral. It is rarely recorded for later referral. Finally, spoken language is accompanied by various forms of paralanguage, such as facial

> expression, gestures, other body movement, rate of speech, pitch, and intonation. All these features add to meaning of an oral message.
>
> Written communication is usually linear, complete, and succinct. Ideas are presented sequentially in full sentences, with concentrated meaning. Written communication is fixed in print and is available for later referral. All of the meaning is conveyed through printed symbols. No additional mechanisms expand the meaning of the written message (Mead 1980, p.3).

Brown et. al. (1979) outline the distinct features of oral communication along three dimensions: (1) Time (more immediate, impermanent, necessary to repeat); (2) Medium (sound and verbal symbols, voice quality, volume, pitch, rate, intonation, stress, juncture and body action); and (3) Relationship (direct, more simple vocabulary, more concrete) (p.12).

Oral and written communication are also perceived as serving different functions. According to Mead (1980):

> One common purpose of oral communication is informal and personal communication ... Oral communication, because it is augmented by paralanguage communication, is particularly powerful for communicating affect ... A third purpose of oral communication is teaching and

conflict resolution.

> Written communication is a particularly powerful mode of communication for other communication purposes. Because written communication tends to be complete and is fixed in print, it is useful for communicating difficult, complex concepts ... (and) in situations where there is smaller amounts of shared meanings (pp.4-5).

While the above comparisons are convenient, they are viewed by some researchers as too simplistic and inaccurate. These individuals feel that oral communication is more than simply the formulation and reception of messages; that it can be as powerful a medium as written communication, and that it is not limited to certain contexts or functions (Del Polito, 1980). Research on listening, for example, has shown that rather than being merely a receptive process, listening is as active a process as speaking, which consists of organizing messages, assigning meanings, focusing on thoughts and feelings, making judgments and responding non-verbally (Hennings, 1971). Also, by focusing only on the distinctions between oral and written communication, little is learned about the discrete aspects of the oral communication process.

Early linguistic studies focused on the structure, acquisition and development of language codes. With oral communication this included an emphasis on phonology, syntax and

grammar, and on "correct" usage of Standard English through some quality of the speaker such as voice, diction, vocabulary and organization of content (Christie, 1979). Emphasis therefore, was on the formal structure of the language and on adherence to that structure during the communication act.

Later researchers and theoreticians, realizing the limits of this paradigm to describe all communication acts, began to analyze the dimensions of spoken language in various social situations (Hopper, 1976). These dimensions include context, function, and characteristics of the speaker such as ability, attitudes and intention. This shift was in recognition of the fact that standard or textbook styles represent only one type of communication in the real world. Sociolinguists began emphasizing the importance of cultural and social variables such as dialect and local language norms; others recognized that language style shifted depending on context, topic, purpose and ability (Bourke, 1979; Christie, 1979). Labov (1965), for example, developed six steps in adapting to standard communication codes:

1. Acquisition of basic grammar
2. Adoption of local vernacular
3. Recognition of the social significance of different dialects
4. Adoption of speech to meet formal situations
5. Adoption of standard speech consistently
6. Use of full range of speech skills (in Backlund & Wiemann, 1978, p.16)

Halliday (1974) found that a standard linguistic dimension such as voice register was not fixed, but depended upon such variables as (1) field of discourse (subject); (2) tenor (relationship between participants); and (3) mode (type of language used).

These ideas have been expanded into a number of often overlapping models of oral communication, the elements of which can be grouped into three general categories: (1) context; (2) purpose or function, and (3) ability (Bourke, 1979).

Context Dimension - The context dimension of oral communication includes setting, characteristics of the situation, topic, audience and cultural variables (Wiemann, 1978). Situational variables influence choice of communication strategies as well as communication styles (Allen & Brown, 1976; Loban, 1963; Plattor et. al., 1979).

According to Gambell (1979):

> Language is so intimately involved in social setting that when children or adults don't use the appropriate speech style in a particular situation they feel alienated (p.5).

Researchers have identified a number of distinct communication situations ranging from formal to informal, or from formal to semi-formal (informal) to casual (intimate) (Bourke, 1979; Plattor et. al., 1979). Mead (1977), breaking these variables down even further to include elements of the audience, has arrived at the following four context dimensions:

formal dyad; formal group; informal dyad; and informal group (p.6).

Crocker (1979) discusses a model of speaker/audience relationship developed by teachers in Australia containing the following dimensions:

1. Reflection: A person thinking or talking to himself;
2. Conversation: Interpersonal communication between a few people in vocal range;
3. Correspondence: Communication between two or more people with some knowledge of one another but divided by space; and
4. Publication: Impersonal communication to a large anonymous group somewhat remote in time and/or space (p. 3).

This is combined with four dimensions of the speaker's relationship with the topic to yield 16 levels of communication progressing toward greater abstraction and more remote relationships between speaker and audience. The topic dimensions resulting in four different types of communication are based on whether the speaker is trying to share:

1. What is happening (drama, recording);
2. What happened (narrative, reporting);
3. What happens (exposition, generalizing);
4. What may, will, could, ought to happen (logical, argument, theorizing) (p. 3).

Gambell's framework for context includes the following four dimensions: speech style; group size; addressee/addressor relationship; and addressee/addressor distantiation. Within this framework, he has identified four distinct speech styles each with discrete characteristics:

1. Intimate: Characterized by economy of words and high use of non-verbal cues.
2. Casual: Described as free-and-easy sharing with incomplete sentences, colloquialisms, and implied background information.
3. Consultative: Characterized by a limited, shared background between persons, use of complete sentences, information gathering, supplied background information, and possibly the dominance by one speaker within the group.
4. Formal: This is usually a lecture format characterized by use of complete sentences, logical and sequential development of content, supplied background information, and relative non-participation by the listeners (1978, p. 5).

Group size ranges on a continuum from dyadic to large; addressee/addressor relationship ranges from intimate to formal; and distantiation ranges from tete-a-tete to distant. Thus, these dimensions cover a wide range of communication possibili-

ties.

In addition to these situational contexts, there also exists what Malinowski (1923) terms the "context of culture" (in Allen & Brown, 1976). Halliday (1971) defines the context of culture as "the environment for the total set of options, while the context of situation is the environment of any particular selection that is made from within them" (p. 166).

Sociolinguists are well aware of the implications of the cultural context. Culture-specific social norms regulate not only what is said but also how and when it is said. These norms have a strong effect on the situational context of communication (Allen & Brown, 1976), and there is a plethora of literature in sociolinguistics on the actual differences in discourse styles across cultures.

Culture also has an effect on perceived language competence. Language use in children initially reflects their cultural or home environments (Mead, 1980). As they become socialized into the school system children must "learn to shift from their home-based conversational discourse strategies to the more written-like strategies of discursive prose" (Michaels, 1980, p. 1). While some children already have discourse styles close to standard English, problems arise when the communication norms of minority-culture children differ greatly from the norms of the mainstream. Although evidence suggests that there are no differences in basic language abilities or linguistic competencies among ethnic group members or dialect speakers

(Loban, 1976; Tharp, 1979), perceived differences in language abilty can profoundly affect a person's life:

> Our notion of key situations as developed by Fred Erickson and John Gumperz holds that modern life offers certain "gatekeeping" encounters which determine access to occupation, official redress and educational opportunities. Within such situations group specific differences in discourse strategies or style assume great importance because misunderstanding frequently results in denial of access to some social opportunities (Michaels, 1980 pp. 1-2).

> There is initial evidence suggesting that when the child's home-based oral discourse style is at variance with the teacher's own literate style and expectations, interaction by the teacher and child is often asynchronous and marked by interruptions and misinterpretation of semantic intent. This child, over time, does not gain access to the kind of instruction and practice required to develop a more literate oral style (Michael & Cook-Gumperz, 1979; in Michaels, 1980, p. 1).

In addition to differential treatment of students by teachers due to differences in communication styles, cultural

differences in oral language style have been shown to affect achievement in other skill areas, including asking questions in class for clarification and information (Pepinsky, Stefano & Sanders, 1980), answering questions asked by an adult (Naremore, 1976), and reading (Bloome, 1980; Day & Day, 1978; Hildreth, 1964; McCormic, 1977; Milner, 1951; Tharp, 1979).

> The quality of language to which a child has been exposed before entering school has been shown to be important. The more exposure a child has had to a language that closely resembles the language which he/she will be required to read, the more likely that he/she will experience success in the reading task (Day & Day, 1978, p. 1).

Some teachers view these differences in terms of deficiencies within the communicator: "The problem is seen to live in the children -- in their brains, or in their families or in the culture" (Tharp, 1979), and these children are seen as "culturally deprived" or "disadvantaged." Research in sociolinguistics and other fields has heightened sensitivity to the cultural context in communication and has pointed out the richness of communication within this context -- despite perceived differences in communication styles. It is important that this sensitivity be translated into applied activity within the classroom so that curricula will reflect an awareness of the cultural context. (See METHODS)

Purpose Dimension - A second dimension of oral communication is that of purpose. Contributors in this area view communication not in terms of structure, but in terms of function. "Function" has a variety of meanings in the literature, relating to purpose, speaker/topic relationships, goals and behaviors.

Halliday, for example, views communication as a means to social ends, a resource used "to build relationships, shape and express meanings, and share information" (Christie, 1979). He identifies functions of language which are developed in children by age five:

1. Instrumental: Used to satisfy material needs ("I want...").
2. Regulatory: Used for control of others behavior.
3. Interactional: Used for getting along with others, identifying self as part of family or group ("me and my dad").
4. Personal: Used to express oneself personally ("I like...").
5. Heuristic: Used for learning, asking questions about environment.
6. Imaginative: Used to create.
7. Representational: Used to communicate and represent information. (Halliday, 1974).

Bourke (1977) discusses communication purposes in more

general terms. According to him, oral communication can be used in five distinct areas: personal, recreational, classroom, business and citizenship.

Friedman (1978) proposes a model which analyzes message content for function along three levels:

1. Content: Conveyance of information (discussion, lecture, description)
2. Emotional: Conveyance of feelings
3. Aesthetic: Oral communication for enjoyment (oral reading, drama, etc).

Miller (1967) sees communication function in terms of the communicator's intent to control the behavior of others. "Communication has as its central interest those behavioral situations in which a source transmits a message to (a) receiver(s) with conscious intent to affect the latter's behavior." (p. 4).

Others feel that Miller's view is limited; that there are other functions beside control such as empathizing or giving information (Wood, 1977b). Wilkinson (1975) discusses 16 functions of communication. These fall under four major headings describing the communicator's relationship to self, others and objects in the world:

Who am I?

1. Establishing and maintaining self
2. Language for analyzing self
3. Language for expressing self

Who are you?

4. Establishing and maintaining relationships
5. Cooperating
6. Empathizing, understanding the other
7. Roleplaying, mimicry
8. Guiding, directing the other

Who/What is he/she/it?

9. Giving information
10. Recalling past events
11. Describing present events
12. Prediction of future events
    a. Statement of intention
    b. Statement of hypothesis
    c. What might happen
13. Analyzing, classifying
14. Exploring, asking questions
15. Explaining, giving reasons for
16. Reflecting, own/others thoughts/feelings

(pp. 56-57).

A popular model developed by Gordon Wells relates verbal behaviors or "speech acts" to one of five functions (Allen & Wood, 1978):

1. Controlling. Communication acts in which the participants' dominant function is to control behavior: for example, commanding, offering, suggesting, permitting, threaten-

ing, warning, prohibiting, contracting, refusing, bargaining, rejecting, acknowledging, justifying, persuading and arguing.

2. Feeling. Communication acts which express and respond to feelings and attitudes such as exclaiming, expressing a state or an attitude, taunting, commiserating, tale-telling, blaming, disagreeing,and rejecting.
3. Informing. Communication acts in which the participants' function is to offer or seek information: for example, starting information, questioning, answering, justifying, naming, pointing out an object, demonstrating, explaining, and acknowledging.
4. Ritualizing. Communication acts which serve primarily to maintain social relationships and to facilitate social interaction, such as greeting, taking leave, participating in verbal games (pat-a-cake), reciting, taking turns in conversations, participating in culturally appropriate speech modes (for example, teasing, praying, punning, playing the dozens), and demonstrating culturally appropriate amenities.
5. Imagining. Communication acts which cast the

> participants in imaginary situations and include creative behaviors such as role-playing, fantasizing, speculating, dramatizing, theorizing, and storytelling. (Lieb-Brilhart, 1979, p. 6).

Wells' model has been one of the more widely adopted models in the field. It is currently used by the Speech Communication Association as a basis for assessment and program development.

Ability Dimension. Ability represents a third general dimension of oral communication. This dimension includes the abilities of the speaker and listener to elicit skills which enhance the communication of information, feelings, etc. Backlund & Wiemann (1978) outline three general areas of ability: (1) Information gathering, which includes such skills as "listening, non-verbal sensitivity, social insight (role-taking), willingness to communicate and open-mindedness"; (2) Information processing & evaluation, which include skills such as reasoning and critical thinking; and (3) Information generation, including grammar skills, appropriate language and nonverbal behaviors, self-disclosure and empathy, (p. 16).

Another framework for ability is offered by Bourke (1979). This author discusses skills in terms of four categories of language:

1. Oral Vocabulary. The skills which are appropriate at this level are concerned with identifying and supplying words,

statements and their meanings, to provide the basis for comprehension and use of oral language.

2. Literal Meaning. The skills required at this level are the comprehension and use of words and statements in different contexts where language is used for communicating information.
3. Implied Meaning. The skills required here are the abilities to comprehend and use words and statements where speech has the purposes of identifying and expressing intentions, feelings, attitudes and emotions, and where the literal meaning of language assumes lesser importance.
4. Analytical and Critical Thinking. The skills required here are the abilities to make and to express critical judgments concerning the logic, consistency, relevance and purpose of what is heard or spoken and the ability to participate logically, cogently and persuasively in discussions (pp. 6-7).

The two examples above are among many models for discussing the ability dimension. Perceptions of what skills are necessary to communicate are closely related to issues of communication competence, and these are discussed more thoroughly in the next

section of this paper.

ANOTHER MODEL

Plattor, et al. (1979) proposed a model for the oral communication process which combines all of the elements discussed above. This model takes into account purpose, mode of communication, audience, situation, language level and process (See Figure 1). This type of conceptualization is useful because it helps one to view communication as a process affected by a number of variables.

THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS

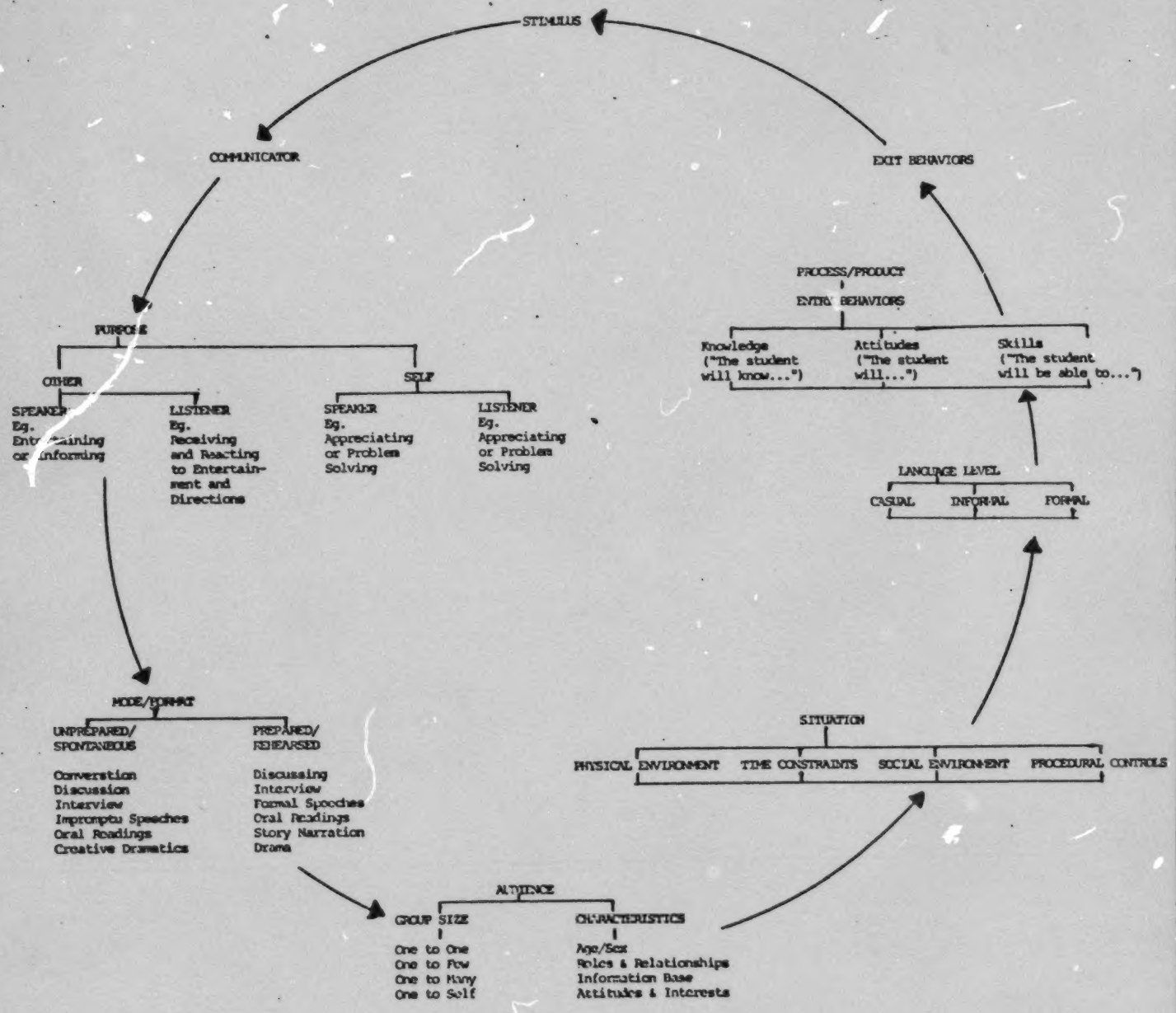

Figure 1.
(Taken from Plattor, et.al., 1979, p. 19.)

ORAL COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE

An area of oral communication which has generated much debate and speculation has been that of communication competence. Contributors from a variety of fields representing an array of ideologies have attempted to capture the nature of competent communication: is it a skill, knowledge, ability, or behavior? What are its components? How does one measure it? (Backlund & Wiemann, 1978). Their endeavors have yielded a number of definitions of competence.*

The construct of "communicative competence" was invented by Dell Hymes (Bradac, 1972). This concept is distinguished from the notion of "linguistic competence." Linguistic competence entails knowledge and understanding of the structure of the language code: rules of grammar, phonetics, etc. (Mead, 1980). The emphasis is on knowledge rather than on performance (Backlund & Wiemann, 1978; Brown, 1976; Larson, 1978; Larson, Backlund, Redmond & Barbour, 1978).

> To the linguist, "competence" is knowledge or intuitions one has about his or her native grammar; it is concerned with an ideal speaker-

---

* The most complete discussion of communication competence is to be found in the book Assessing Functional Communication by Larson, et. al., (1978); much of the material in the following section was taken from this work. It is highly recommended reading.

> listener in a relatively homogenous speech community, not with everyday use of language (p. 69).

Communicative competence, on the other hand, involves not only knowledge of the language but knowledge of appropriate language usage in various social contexts, actualized through performance (Backlund & Wiemann, 1978; Brown, 1976; Cazden, 1972; Del Polito, 1980; Hymes, 1971; Larson, et. al., 1978; Mead, 1980).

> Communication competence, unlike linguistic competence, involves an awareness of the transactions that occur between people. Competence, in this perspective, is tied to actual performance of language in social contexts (Allen and Brown, 1976, p. 248).

> In its most natural form, communication competence can be defined as saying the right thing at the right time (or sometimes keeping quiet) (Mead, 1977, p. 13).

> Oral communication competence is the ability of an individual to select, adapt, and implement speaking and listening behaviors appropriate for the purpose, audience (one or more individuals), and context of the interaction (Del Polito, 1980, p. 2).

Thus the focus is on knowledge and performance, on the

ability of the communicator to know "what to talk about, with whom, in what way, when and where" (Hymes, 1971, p. 55) and to respond appropriately in given situations.

"Competence" is viewed as "the most general term for the speaking and hearing capabilities of a person" (Hymes, 1971, p. 18), to be distinguished from "communication effectiveness" which is related to "accuracy of perception" and to the achievement of goals and desired outcomes (Larson et. al., 1978).

> Communication competence implies a minimum level of ability basically with respect to two characteristics: (1) meeting the minimal communicative demands of a situation and (2) exhibiting socially appropriate behavior. Effectiveness, on the other hand, is a commodity rarer than competence. It is something we know far less about and exhibit much less frequently... Competence involves minimal levels of communicative functioning and effectiveness involves communicating in such a way that certain desirable outcomes are enhanced or facilitated (Larson, et. al., 1978, pp. 1-3).

Another construct found in the literature which is closely linked to effectiveness is that of "interpersonal competence."

> Weinstein defined interpersonal competence as the ability of a person to accomplish interpersonal tasks. He states, "This is no more than saying

> that interpersonal competence boils down to the ability to manipulate the response of the other" (p. 755). This seems to differ from communication competence, again, in intentionality. However, Bochner and Kelly (1974) see interpersonal competence as the ability to interact effectively with other people... Hale and Delia (1976) state that, to be interpersonally competent, the child must develop the social cognition skills involved in interpreting social situations in order to adapt flexibly to them. Foote and Cottrel (1955) define interpersonal competence as the ability of an individual to shape the responses of others (Larson, et. al., 1978, p. 21).

Unifying these ideas of competence and effectiveness is the notion of "functional communication." According to Larson, et. al.:

> Functional communication refers to the skills, knowledge and attitudes possessed by an individual from which that individual's competence or effectiveness may be inferred. The lowest level of functional communication is competence. Levels of functional communication above competence imply degree of communication effectiveness (1978, p. 3).

Dimensions of Functional Communication Competence. Since functional communication refers to the possession of certain

skills and competence refers to the elicitation of those skills through behavior, many researchers have endeavored to determine which skills and behaviors are included in a competent communication act.

Some authors, such as Bochner and Kelly (1974) emphasize the skills of the communicator. These writers identify empathy, ability to receive and process feedback, ability to own thoughts and feelings, self-disclosure and flexibility of behavior as the main contributors to communication competence and effectiveness.

Similarly, Weinstein (1969) identifies skills such as the ability to maintain desired speaking and listening identities, role-taking, possession of a varied repertoire of alternative communication behaviors and effective use of tactics. Wang, Rose, & Maxwell (1973) describe effective communication skills as the abilities to take the listeners role, to order and classify information, and to process and respond to feedback.

Wiemann (1977a, 1977b, 1978) and Backlund and Wiemann (1978) view three main skill variables as consistent throughout the literature concerning dimensions of competence: (1) empathy, affiliation and support; (2) behavioral flexibility; and (3) interaction management. Wiemann operationalizes these dimensions in terms of specific observable behaviors. Affiliation, support and empathy are measured through the following behavioral cues:

1. Eye behavior;
2. The alternation and co-occurrence of specific

speech choices which mark the status and affiliative relationships of the interactants, e.g., "Professor," "Your Honor"; pet names, or multiple names as markers of a relationship;

3. Duration of speaking time and number of statements per minute;
4. Pleasantness of facial expression (smiling);
5. Statements indicating "owning" of one's perceptions about another;
6. Physical proximity chosen during interaction;
7. Touching other interactant;
8. Active-listening cues (nonverbal cues such as head nod, eye contact; and reinforcers such as "uh-huhs", "yes");
9. Overt expression understanding (e.g. "I know how you feel") (1977a, 1977b).

Behavioral flexibility represents "the adaptions one makes within a situation or from situation to situation" (Wiemann, 1977b, p. 199) including temporal and spatial immediacy (talking in the here and now), use of relationship markers (See 2 above) and "overall changes in all behaviors from situation to situation." (1977a, p. 5) Interaction Management represents the rules of interaction which permit a smooth encounter between

participants. Wiemann identifies the following rules as being relevant to communicative competence.

1. Interruptions of the speaker are not permitted;
2. One person talks at a time;
3. Speaker turns must interchange;
4. Frequent and lengthy pauses should be avoided;
5. An interactant must be perceived as devoting full attention to the encounter (1977b, p. 199).

Some behaviors which indicate interaction management cues such as turn-yielding and turn-taking include: direction of gaze, sentence completion, questions, posture (reclining or forward leaning), headnods, and "buffers" (content-free words such as "but-ah" and "you know"). Wiemann's model is important because it emphasizes the use of non-verbal cues in the communication process.

In contrast to the skill models of competence other models emphasize competence not as a characteristic of the communicator but as "characteristic of the process by which the communicator interacts with his or her physical and social environment" (Parks, 1977).

One such model is proposed by Parks and is based on the sociological assumptions embodied in "exchange theory." These assumptions are that (1) people are active participants in their

environment, and that (2) all human interaction is basically manipulative, that is, focused on active control mobilized toward achievement of rewards, goals, or desirable outcomes. Parks conceives "control" as a value-free concept concerned only with the attainment of desirable outcomes. It is multi-lateral, that is, it is something done for and with others as opposed to something done to others. Parks lists six dimensions of the communication/control process with regard to competence: (1) goal specification, including the dimensions of awareness, specificity, duration (short- or long-term), mutuality and realism; (2) information acquisition, ways of obtaining information such as self-disclosure, asking questions, etc.; (3) prediction-making involving accuracy, goal relevance and use of past information; (4) strategy selection, based on size of communicator's repertoire and ability to apply strategies effectively; (5) strategy implementation, and (6) environmental testing. A competent communicator is aware of the goals of his/her communication act, able to articulate these goals fairly specifically, and able to evaluate success during the course of the interaction. He/she is able to effectively obtain information relevant to goals and to make accurate predictions as to the chances of reaching goals. The competent communicator has a large stock of communication strategies and is able to apply these strategies to use language effectively, employing proper terms and usage in an organized and responsive manner. Finally, the competent communicator is able to critique

his/her feedback from the audience (Parks, 1977). Park maintains that other views of competence which emphasize such concepts as supportiveness or identity maintenance are ineffective in relating to all communication goals. For example, a person involved in a sale-type interaction would not be required to exhibit a behavior such as supportiveness in order to achieve his/her goals (i.e., making a purchase).

Parks' model is similar to one proposed by Allen and Brown (1976). They see competence as being characterized by four major features:

1. The exercise of competence depends upon an available repertoire of experiences;
2. It requires that the individual make critical choices from that repertoire;
3. It is revealed when suitable behaviors are brought to bear in performing desired tasks; and
4. It is sustained when individuals are able to evaluate their performances (p. 248).

These characteristics can be expanded to describe a "competent communication process." The communicator, with his/her repertoire of knowledge, skills and attitudes, analyzes the communication task in terms of the situational context and his/her goal. Next, the communicator selects an appropriate behavior from his/her repertoire and implements that behavior. Finally the communicator evaluates that behavior on the basis of

feedback from impact on the audience. Subsequent behaviors are initiated based on that feedback, and the process is ongoing (Backlund & Wiemann, 1978).

Allen and Brown's model has played an important role in the development of oral communication teaching strategies; it will be discussed further in the GOALS section of this paper.

The above discussion has served to give the reader an idea of the issues surrounding the definition of communication competence. The divergent and overlapping models discussed above are the basis of current work in oral communication.

ASSESSMENT OF COMPETENCE

> Effective oral communication requires the intersection of verbal, social and logical abilities. It is at the same time a motor and perceptual skill and is also influenced by attitudes. To search for a pure measure of communication competence is akin to the alchemists' attempt to isolate elemental fire (Rubin, 1980a, p. 7).

Theoretical recognition of the process nature of oral communication has led to the realization that oral communication skills "do not readily lend themselves to the type of reductionistic formulations that ease the labor of test construction" (Rubin, 1980a, p. 15). In other words, it is difficult to isolate single variables which comprise the "essence" of the competent communication act. Rather, there exists a number of skills, attitudes, contexts and functions which make up the communication process and lend themselves to a variety of definitions of competence.

Even if the exact dimensions of competence are not known, it is clear that there is a wide range of communication competencies. Everyday observation tells us that some people communicate effectively while others do not. One's own experience may yield a range of situations where communication effectiveness varies. Thus, one may be an effective communicator in a dyad while being ineffective in front of a

large audience, or a person may be able to handle one communication function (e.g. giving directions) with ease while having difficulty with another task (e.g. sharing feelings). Because of the range of communication possibilities even with a single context or function (e.g. giving directions to another person), it is difficult to design assessment tools which measure general communication competence.

Work (1977) identified eight reasons for the difficulty of evaluating oracy:

1. Communicative exchanges are ephemeral; the very act of perceiving them interferes with an objective evaluation of them.
2. Speaking and listening behaviors are so complex and idiosyncratic that it is difficult to set standards for assessing them.
3. Because organizing appropriate messages is much more art than craft or science, evaluation tends to be subjective.
4. The skills of interpersonal and public communication, like those of singing or acting, are difficult, if not impossible to demonstrate through paper and pencil testing.
5. The fact that personality and communicative behaviors are so closely linked puts further strain on a teacher's ability to make objective judgments.

6. Classrooms, as communication environments, are necessarily somewhat artificial.
7. Tests that are strictly objective do not seem to measure the important characteristics of effective communication.
8. There is little understanding or agreement about what functional communicative competence is (p. 339).

Despite these drawbacks, the area of oral communication assessment has gained much attention in recent years. Researchers have been especially interested in the issues surrounding large scale assessment of students in classroom situations (Backlund, Brown, Gurry and Jandt, n.d.; Larson et. al., 1978, Massachusetts Department of Education, n.d., Mead 1977, Plattor, et. al., 1979; Rubin 1980a, 1980b, 1981).

Mead (1977) outlines three major issues with regard to the development of a national assessment for oracy: (1) domain of competencies; (2) measurement strategies; and (3) minority test bias.

Domain of Competencies. This issue is concerned with the question of what to test. Historically, research in this area has paralleled the theoretical developments in oral communication. Early studies were concerned with developing scales for public speaking. Test construction emphasized the identification of stylistic factors such as content, delivery and language which contributed to effective oratory.

Researchers identified as many as sixteen "discrete aspects of speaking ability" including delivery, content, clarity of utterancy, organization, body action, language, voice, and personality (Brown et. al., 1979). Research in linguistics measured variables such as syntactic complexity or Standard English usage (Rubin, 1980a). Other studies placed an emphasis on assessment in specific content areas such as listening (Devine, 1978; Duker, 1966, 1968), nonverbal communication (Wiemann & Wiemann, 1975), communication apprehension (Burgoon, 1976; Lamb, 1972; Mulac & Sherman, 1974); or on testing of specific behavioral objectives (Mead, 1977).

Later, with the theoretical literature focusing on functional communication, the emphasis shifted to designing assessment tools which are broader in scope, dealing with such constructs as "socially appropriate behavior" and "the ability to achieve desired outcomes in a variety of situations" (Brown et. al., 1979). Unlike work in written communication assessment, researchers in oracy are concerned with developing assessments based on a wide range of skills rather than a specific curriculum and on performance rather than knowledge (Mead, 1977).

Measurement Strategies. A second issue concerns strategies of measurement. Mead (1977) delineated two basic types of measures, direct and indirect.

Indirect measures are valued by some researchers and many school officials because they are relatively inexpensive and

easy to administer and score. Examples of indirect measures include paper-and-pencil tests with multiple-choice questions in which the respondent must pick the best response for a given communication situation. A problem with this type of test is that it tends to measure knowledge of communication strategies rather than the ability to perform competently.

> Knowing about speech communication is not equivalent to being able to execute communication acts, although intellectual apprehension of pertinent variables presumably enhances skill (Rubin, 1980a, p. 4).

Also, achievement on these type of tests can be influenced by such factors as "test-wiseness" or reading ability (Rubin, 1980b). Moreover, Mead found that it was difficult to formulate items for such a test which were realistic, relevant, and which have a single "correct answer."

Other types of indirect measures assess traits, attitudes and personality factors which play a part in communication. However, these measures "may account for only small portions of the variance in communication performance" (Rubin, 1980a).

Direct measures include assessment of actual communication samples related on the basis of predetermined criteria. Methods range from naturalistic observation to structured interactions such as role-playing or referential communication games (see METHODS). Thus, direct measures assess actual communication performance rather than simply knowledge about communication.

Problems with direct measures include cost and potential measurement error, although there is evidence that these difficulties can be controlled (Rubin, 1980a).

In addition to direct and indirect measures, there are two other general test categories discussed in the literature: objective- or criterion-referenced tests and norm-referenced tests. The purpose of objective-referenced tests according to Larson et. al.:

> is to determine whether or not you can exhibit a particular skill, demonstrate a specific ability, perform a certain task, or meet a particular demand. Your score on such a test is a function of whether or not you respond correctly or adequately to the various test items (1978. p. 3).

Norm-referenced testing, on the other hand, performs a different function:

> This strategy is directed toward discovering how well you perform certain communication operations. The issue is not the presence or absence of a particular communication skill. The issue is the level of skill you are able to demonstrate, compared to the level of skill demonstrated by others responding to the same assessment procedures. Your score on such a test is not absolute; it is relative (Larson

et. al., 1978, p. 3).

Besides having to consider the four dimensions discussed above, those wishing to implement assessment strategies must also evaluate oracy tests in terms of the standard psychometric issues of "validity" and "reliability." Larson, et. al. (1978) offer a brief but thorough discussion of these constructs. Briefly, validity "refers to the ability of a test to do what we want it to do and not something else" (p. 88). There are various types of validity (face validity, factorial validity, construct validity, empirical validity, concurrent validity), each referring to different aspects of a test's ability to measure what it is intended to measure relative to conceptual, statistical, practical and consensual considerations.

Reliability refers to the ability of the test to yield consistent data over repeated trials (temporal reliability) and if scored by different raters (external reliability). The items within the test must also be reliable, that is, they must consistently assess the same content (internal reliability). Direct measures are particularly sensitive to reliability issues.

In addition to these considerations, Rubin (1980a) discusses another issue relevant to educational assessment: "pedagogical validity." This refers to the tendency of educators to conform instructional curricula to test specifications -- or to "teach to the test." Indirect measures are sensitive to this type of validity. According to Rubin,

these tests "are likely to exert deleterious 'washback' effects on speech communication instructional practices, leading to a focus on rote knowledge rather than internalized skill" (1980b p. 10).

Minority Test Bias. A third issue in the assessment of oral communication is that of minority test bias. Research in this area has emphasized the need to create measurement instruments and methodologies which are sensitive to cultural and group differences (Mead, 1977; Rubin 1980a, 1980b). Bias in testing exists when "an instrument over- or under-predicts a particular group's or individual's performance on some criterion measure" (Rubin, 1980b).

Bias may exist within the instrument itself or it may exist within the values inherent in the assessment process. According to Rubin (1980b), cultural bias within the test itself may exist in three distinct areas: "communication contexts (e.g. roleplaying a business executive), evaluation criteria (e.g. Standard English pronunciation and syntax), and test stimuli (e.g. 'point to the grandfather clock')" (p. 12). Just as certain communication contexts are foreign to members of particular cultures, cultural norms differ in terms of what is considered an appropriate response in a communication situation. Self-disclosure or eye contact, for example, deemed by some researchers to be measures of competent communication are variables which differ in appropriateness across cultures or subcultures.

Culture differences also exist with respect to the concept

of assessment itself:

> Indeed middle class children are trained in their home environments to perform in examination situations. Parents typically ask quasi-questions, questions which are clearly not requests for enlightenment since answers are patently known by the inquisitors. Or children are given practice in producing extended discourse primarily for the gratification of their elders. In sum, these children learn that speaking in the role of examinee is normal and rewarding.
>
> This portrayal contrasts sharply with... communication in a Native American community. In this minority culture youngsters typically learn domestic skills by silently observing their elders, and practicing in private. Demonstrating a skill for purposes of formative evaluation is not normal. Rather, a child will perform the new task as a matter of course in its functional context after he or she is satisfied of mastery. Moreover, from early childhood children are immersed in a peer culture with little basis for the role of examinee.
>
> Leadership is a shared and fluid role and it is unusual for a young member of this community

> to hold forth in speech for an extended period. For these reasons it seems inappropriate to engage in classroom recitation. Likewise, this culture provides no foundation for responding in a situation deliberately contrived as an examination of oral competence (Rubin, 1980a, pp. 11-12).

In light of the above considerations, Brown, et. al. (1979) evaluated available assessment instruments for their applicability as large-scale speaking and listening assessment tools for the Massachusetts State Board of Education's Basic Skills Improvement Program. Instruments evaluated included speech rating scales, listening tests, functional communication measures, and oral language measures for bilingual students. Tests were classified as evaluative (those which measured level of performance) or descriptive (those which described behavior without ranking it) and methods were classified as either obtrusive or naturalistic. Using this classification system, the authors delineated three general types of assessment tools: (1) formal tests (usually obtrusive-evaluative measures); (2) functional performance ratings (naturalistic-evaluative measures which relied on such techniques as roleplaying, storytelling, etc.), and (3) interaction observation systems (naturalistic-descriptive measures where communication behavior was observed in a natural setting and then evaluated according to some fixed criteria).

The instruments were reviewed using the following criteria:

1. Stimulus material should require respondent to perform as a speaker or listener.
2. Instrument should distinguish speaking and listening performance from reading and writing ability.
3. Instrument should be free of sexual, cultural, racial, ethnic content and/or stereotyping.
4. Instrument should assess the presence or absence of skills.
5. Instrument should emphasize application of skills in familiar situations.
6. Instrument should allow for optional settings (e.g. interpersonal group, public, mass communication settings).
7. Instrument should allow for a range of responses.
8. Instrument should be reliable.
9. Instrument should demonstrate concurrent validity.
10. Instrument should demonstrate content validity.
11. Administration procedures should be detailed and standardized.
12. Instrument should be not likely to produce

undue stress.

13. Instrument should be cost and time effective.
14. Instrument should involve simple equipment.
15. Instrument should be suitable for target population (Brown, et. al., 1979, pp. 15-18).

The authors reviewed seventy-one instruments and found none which met their predetermined criteria. They concluded that "new instruments tailored to the purposes of the Basic Skills Improvement Policy and to distinct characteristics of speaking and listening behavior must be developed" (p. 49), and they formulated the following recommendations for instrument development:

Assessing Speaking Skills

1. Assessment of students should occur in naturalistic rather than contrived situations.
2. Assessment of students should involve observations by classroom teachers.
3. The assessment instrument should be a rating scale...
4. While the instrument is being developed, assessment should be verified at the eighth grade level.
5. A validation study should be conducted when

the instrument is first being developed.

Assessing Listening Skills

1. Stimulus materials should be taped, spoken messages, not written passages read aloud by the teacher or by a narrator on tape.
2. Stimulus materials and test items should be keyed to the domains or factors represented in our listening skills (e.g. listening to detect when the message is enhanced or impeded by the speaker's delivery; comprehending the speaker's purpose; comprehending the speaker's organization).
3. The stimulus material should call for a simple and minimal response.
4. Stimulus materials -- both the messages and the test questions should be short.
5. The stimulus materials should be interesting.
6. The vocabulary used in the stimulus material should be controlled.
7. Stimulus materials should employ speakers who use Standard or "network" English, (pp. 68-74).

In a similar article, Plattor, et. al. (1979) state the following objectives for assessment:

1. Assessment devices should be concerned with knowledge, skills, attitudes; stimuli should be short, varied and concerned with different

audiences, situations, and purposes. Casual, informal, and formal language should be reflected in these stimuli.

2. Assessment devices should provide for the evaluation of expression and reception of spontaneous spoken language, prepared spoken language, and written language read aloud.
3. Assessment devices should provide for the evaluation of a variety of oral language factors, including vocal, non-verbal and verbal ones (vocabulary, syntax, etc.).
4. Assessment of oral communication competency should be conducted under controlled but natural testing conditions.
5. Attention should be given to examining available oral language test instruments to determine whether or not they meet the above criteria (pp. 12-13).

The American Speech-Language-Hearing Association and the Speech Communication Association in their "Standards for Effective Oral Communication Programs" list the following guidelines for assessment and evaluation:

1. The oral communication program is based on a school-wide assessment of the speaking and listening needs of students.

2. Speaking and listening needs of students will be determined by qualified personnel utilizing appropriate evaluation tools for the skills to be assessed, and educational levels of students being assessed.
3. Evaluation of student progress in oral communication is based upon a variety of data including observations, self-evaluations, listeners' responses to messages, and formal tests.
4. Evaluation of students' oral communication encourages, rather than discourages students' desires to communicate, by emphasizing those behaviors which students can improve, thus enhancing their ability to do so.
5. Evaluation of the total oral communication program is based on achievement of acceptable levels of oral communication skill determined by continuous monitoring of student progress and speaking and listening, use of standardized and criterion-referenced tests, audience-based rating scales, and other appropriate instruments (1979, pp. 18-19).

Clearly, there are many possible methods for assessing oral communication, ranging from paper and pencil tests to videotapes of actual communication. To date no instrument or procedure

exists which meets all of the criteria outlined by any particular author. It is important, however, that developers of oral communication assessment tools be aware of the issues discussed above and work toward creating assessment devices which are not only accurate but relevant and sensitive to these issues.

PROGRAM GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

Closely tied to the issues of competence and assessment is the identification of objectives for oral communication. In their attempts to determine what to assess and what to teach, many educators and researchers have identified performance or behavioral objectives which represent the goals of an oral communication program or curriculum. These objectives are varied and reflect the communication model used by the particular author. Some are individual performance objectives aimed at some notion of "competent" communication behavior; others are program performance objectives which reflect characteristics of effective oral communication programs.

This chapter will offer a sampling of these objectives, in order to provide an idea of the variety of approaches to oral communication which are possible.

One such approach provided in the "SCA Guidelines for Minimal Competencies in Speaking and Listening for High School Graduates" identifies four broad categories of skills necessary for competent communication: communication codes, oral message evaluation, basic speech communication skills, and human relations.

I. Communication Codes

A. Listen effectively to spoken English.

B. Use words, pronunciation and grammar appropriate for the situation.

C. Use non-verbal signs appropriate for

situation.

D. Use voice effectively.

II. Oral Message Evaluation

A. Identify main ideas in messages.

B. Distinguish facts from opinions.

C. Distinguish between informative and persuasive messages.

D. Recognize when another does not understand your message.

III. Basic Speech Communication Skills

A. Express ideas clearly and concisely.

B. Express and defend with evidence your point of view.

C. Organize (order) messages so that others can understand them.

D. Ask questions to obtain information.

E. Answer questions effectively.

F. Give concise and accurate directions.

G. Summarize messages.

IV. Human Relations

A. Describe another's viewpoint.

B. Describe differences in opinion.

C. Express feelings to others.

D. Perform social rituals (Bassett, Whittington & Stanton-Spicer, 1978; SCA Taskforce on Minimal Speaking/Listening Competencies,

1978).

In addition to the above competencies, the authors also list examples for application in three areas: occupational, citizenship, and maintenance. For example, under "Express ideas clearly and concisely" the following examples for application are offered: "Make a report to your job supervisor" (occupational), "Describe an accident or crime to a policeman (citizenship), and "Explain your values to your child or friend" (maintenance).

Similar behavioral objectives were decided upon by the Massachusetts State Board of Education. However, these objectives were divided more specifically into listening and speaking skills:

Listening

(a) Basic listening skills

1. Recognize words and phrases used by the speaker.
2. Indicate why the speaker can or cannot be understood.

(b) Understanding what you hear

1. Understand spoken words and ideas.
2. Identify and understand main ideas.
3. Associate important details with main ideas.
4. Understand descriptions of events and experiences.

5. Understand speaker's purpose.

(c) Using what you hear

1. Understand and respond to survival words used in emergency situations.
2. Summarize information and draw conclusions.
3. Recognize when words and phrases are used to convince or persuade.
4. Follow straightforward directions.

Speaking

(a) Basic Oral Communication Skills

1. Use words and phrases appropriate to the situation.
2. Speak loudly enough to be heard by a listener or groups of listeners.
3. Speak at a rate the listener can understand.
4. Say words distinctly.

(b) Planning, Developing and Stating Spoken Messages

1. Use words in an order that clearly expresses the thought.
2. Organize main ideas for presentation.
3. State main ideas clearly.
4. Support main ideas with important details.

(c) Common Uses of Spoken Messages

1. Use survival words to cope with emergency situations.
2. Speak so listener understands purpose.
3. Ask for and give straightforward information.
4. Describe objects, events, and experiences.
5. Question others' viewponts ("Regulations for Implementation of the Basic Skills Improvement Policy," 1979).

Other authors list similar objectives, emphasizing skills such as giving and receiving directions and feedback; summarizing and evaluating content; stating and understanding purpose; differentiating between information and opinion; inferring motives; drawing conclusions; stating ideas, views, and feelings; and using non-verbal communication effectively (Lincolnshire-Prarie View Elementary School District, 1975; Michigan State Department of Education, 1974; Wolf, 1973).

Book (1973) describes a different set of communication objectives which focuses on aspects of interpersonal communication skills such as self-disclosure, levels of communication, empathy, non-verbal communication, roles, feedback, defensive/supportive communication, accuracy of communication, "facework" (confirmation/rejection of the other person), nostility and communication breakdowns.

Rather than emphasizing specific communication skills, other objectives revolve around specific communication acts such as describing personal experiences, participating in and leading group discussions, interviewing, informal and formal oral presentation, using the telephone, parliamentary procedure, storytelling, debate, choral reading and creative dramatics (Brown, Burnett, Jones, Matsumoto, Langford & Pacheco, 1981; Lake Region Educational Planning Center, 1971; Possien, 1969; Tafoya, 1979).

Mead (1977) takes a functional communication approach, basing her behavioral objectives on Gordon Wells' model for the five functions of oral communication:

Informing/Speaking

1. Be able to choose an appropriate topic for an informative talk.
2. Be able to introduce a topic in an informative talk.
3. Be able to conclude effectively an informative talk.
4. Be able to organize an informative talk.
5. Be able to elaborate a point.
6. Be able to ask questions.
7. Be able to give directions.
8. Be able to describe objects, people, places and activities.

Informing/Listening

9. Be able to listen actively to and analyze an informative speech.
10. Be able to listen actively to an everyday informative messages.

Controlling/Speaking

1. Be able to use persuasive arguments.
2. Be able to support a position with appropriate arguments.
3. Be able to support arguments with appropriate evidence.
4. Be able to analyze an audience.
5. Be able to distinguish facts from opinions.
6. Be able to identify logical arguments from illogical arguments.

Controlling/Listening

7. Be able to listen actively to and analyze a persuasive speech.
8. Be able to listen actively to an everyday persuasive message.

Sharing Feelings/Expressing

1. Be able to recognize if the situation is appropriate for sharing feelings.
2. Be able to assert feelings in difficult communication situations.

Sharing Feelings/Recognizing

3. Be able to recognize nonverbal expression of typical feelings.
4. Be able to recognize incongruence between verbal and nonverbal expressions of typical feelings.

Ritualizing

1. Be able to lead a group discussion.
2. Be able to identify ritual communication from other types of communication.
3. Be able to perform typical communication rituals.

Communicating Attitudes

1. Be willing to communicate with others.
2. Have positive concepts of self as communicator.
3. Be willing to share feelings.
4. Be comfortable communicating in difficult communication situations (in front of large audiences, in groups with authority figures).
5. Be comfortable when involved in persuasive communication.
6. Be comfortable when involved in communication rituals.
7. Be tolerant of different dialects and ways

of communicating (p. 8).

Other approaches focus on objectives for the communication program itself. The American Speech-Language-Hearing Association and the Speech Communication Association (1979) prepared the following objectives for effective oral communication programs:

1. The oral communication program is based on current theory and research in speech and language development, psycholinguistics, rhetorical and communication theory, communication disorders, speech science, and related fields.
2. Oral communication instruction is a clearly identifiable part of the curriculum.
3. Oral communication instruction is systematically related to reading and writing instruction and to instruction in the various content areas.
4. The relevant academic, personal and social experiences of students provide core subject matter for the oral communication program.
5. Oral communication instruction provides a wide range of speaking and listening experiences, in order to develop effective communication skills appropriate to:
   a. a range of situations; e.g., informal

to formal, interpersonal to mass communication.

b. a range of purposes; e.g., informing, learning, persuading, evaluating messages, facilitating social interaction, sharing feelings, imaginative and creative expression.

c. a range of audiences; e.g., classmates, teachers, peers, employers, family, community

d. a range of communication forms; e.g., conversation, group discussion, interview, drama, debate, public speaking, oral interpretation

e. a range of speaking styles; e.g., impromptu, extemporaneous, and reading from manuscript.

6. The oral communication program provides class time for systematic instruction in oral communication skills, e.g., critical listening, selecting, arranging and presenting messages, giving and receiving constructive feedback, non-verbal communication.

7. The oral communication program includes development of adequate and appropriate language, articulation, voice, fluency and listening skills necessary for success in educational, career, and social situations through regular

classroom instruction, co-curricular activities, speech-language pathology, and audiology services.

8. Oral communication program instruction encourages and provides appropriate opportunities for the reticent student (e.g., one who is excessively fearful in speaking situations) to participate more effectively in oral communication, (pp. 16-17).

Allen and Brown (1976) state that the goal of oral communication instruction is to allow children to function completely as "message strategists who draw upon a repertoire of experience in selecting, implementing and evaluating a number of communication functions (p. 252). These authors suggest that oral communication programs should allow children to be exposed to a variety of communication opportunities:

> opportunities for interacting with a wide range of participants, opportunities for talking about topics of interest to them, opportunities for engaging in a wide range of communication acts, and opportunities for communicating in diverse environments. However, children should also be given the opportunity to talk <u>about</u> their talk. They should be encouraged to identify, analyze, and modify criteria for <u>selecting</u> strategies. They should have the opportunity to discuss their

> verbal and nonverbal choices in implementing strategies. They should be given the opportunity to participate in evaluating their own communication behaviors and the communication behaviors of others.
>
> What is called for, in sum, is a participatory classroom environment in which students are given the opportunity to experiment with communication behaviors that are important to them. Teachers, operating out of this perspective, must be sensitive to the communication needs of their students and must be capable of structuring learning environments that promote rather than constrain student communicative involvement (pp 254-255).

The objectives outlined above reflect varied approaches to oral communication programs. Brown, et. al. (1981) label these approaches the "component skills approach," the "activities approach," and the functional communication approach." Each approach has different implications for the methodologies used in teaching oral communication. Specific methods for teaching will be discussed in the next chapter.

METHODS FOR TEACHING ORAL COMMUNICATION

> Unless people are taught to speak and listen in such a way that they strive for real understanding of one another, no matter how much voice and diction or spelling and punctuation have been improved -- communication has not been taught (Johnson, 1946, p. 481).

In recent years, advances made in oral communication theory have uncovered a need for teaching methods which reflect the current level of theoretical understanding. A problem in this area has been that although theoreticians agree that oral communication is a complex process influenced by a number of variables, there has been no consensus on the identification of the most salient objectives, skills, contexts or competencies necessary for curriculum development (Wiemann, 1978).

Currently the literature contains only general approaches to teaching oral communication and some methods or exercises which may be used for specific instructional purposes. Little exists in the way of systematic curricula or instructional programs, and even less exists in the way of research on the efficacy of available methods.

This chapter will outline some of the general instructional approaches to oral communication found in the literature. It will also focus on some specific methods and activities

available which may be used in instruction. It is hoped that this information will be useful for developing a curriculum which reflects the state of the art in oral communication.

General Approaches. Researchers and educators have identified some general approaches to teaching which help to promote the building of oral communication skills. For example, it is agreed that one of the most important means to skill building is practice: "children learn to communicate largely by communicating" (Allen & Brown, 1976, p. 156). Thus, in order to foster oral communication skills in children, one must first allow them the opportunity to communicate (Allen & Brown, 1976; Possien, 1969). While this approach may seem obvious, it has already been pointed out that in most classrooms children have few opportunities to practice oral communication beyond the rote answering of questions or formal reporting. Teaching children how to ask questions and how to dialog about what they are learning as well as providing them with the opportunity to do so without censure are basic ways to encourage oral communication in the classroom (Finkelstein & Ritter, 1980).

The development of communication skills may also be facilitated by offering students a variety of opportunities to learn communication through such activities as roleplaying and simulation, creative play, games (e.g., 20 questions or charades), group projects, discussion, storytelling, pantomime, drama, analysis of photographs and pictures, and show and tell

(Allen & Brown, 1976; Allen & Wood, 1978; Edelsky, 1978; Hennings, 1977; Possien, 1969; Tafoya, 1979; Tharp, 1979).

These activities can be used to focus on general skills (speaking, listening, non-verbal behavior), or on specific skills within each general category (intonation, listening for content, making eye contact). Methods such as these can also be used to make students aware of language and the components of the communication process. For example, roleplaying can be used to teach the concept of communication context; discussion can be used to make students aware of slang and different communication styles; photoanalysis can illustrate nonverbal communication behaviors.

Whichever activity is used, researchers agree that it should be relevant to the students' needs and interests. According to Allen and Brown (1976):

> Children need to speak and listen within situational contexts that are (a) defined at least by the children themselves, (b) interesting to them, and (c) relevant in some way to their immediate concerns (p. 156).

Thus, the role of the student should be an active one. Students should not only be allowed to practice communication in an array of situations relevant to them, they should also be allowed to "talk <u>about</u> their talk" (Allen & Brown, 1976). Many authors advise the use of video or audio tape recorders for

this purpose. Tape recording not only gives students the experience of seeing and hearing themselves communicate, it also provides them with an excellent opportunity to analyze the communication process in a way that is relevant to their own communication. Allen and Brown (1976) suggest taping children's conversatons, then transcribing them and allowing children to "read their own talk." Book (1973) recommends videotaping conversations and then having students evaluate their videotapes for predetermined skills. The students can identify the skills which they are lacking and establish behavioral objectives. Activities can then be focused on building specific skills.

The purpose of the above approach is to build "functional communication" skills. Children are taught how the communication process functions so that they are able to evaluate the effectiveness of their own communication, while expanding their repertoire of effective communication responses. The idea is that "form follows function." Emphasis is taken away from the structure of the language itself (grammar, syntax, phonology) and placed on appropriate and effective communication behavior, recognizing that there are instances where the use of non-Standard English is more effective. Accordingly, many researchers have found that activities focusing on grammar and syntax by themselves are irrelevant to teaching effective communication (Edelsky, 1978; Moffett & Wagner, 1976; Larson, et. al., 1978). In fact, one author reports that "conscious overt

instruction is not necessary or likely to be particularly useful in helping a child attain basic knowledge of grammar" (Hopper, 1976, p. 13).

This information is useful when considering the issue of teaching communication to non-Standard English speakers, notably dialect speakers or members of minority cultures. Tharp (1979) reports:

> In the basic issues of linguistic competence, dialect speakers are not inferior. The basic linguistic competencies of growing syntactic complexity, the flexible use of vocabulary, the ability to generate new and alternate forms of construction -- all those tools of language which are the tools of thought -- are present equally in dialect and Standard speakers. That means: we do not have to teach dialect speakers to use language .... Again we see the issue: we have found a basic linguistic repertoire. We do not have to teach it, we have to allow it (p. 24).

Tharp's model for teaching linguistic competence, based on the principle of finding the behavior in the student's repertoire and eliciting it, coincides with Allen and Brown's (1976) model of communication competence: "repertoire of experience, selecting strategies, implementing strategies and

evaluating performance." Thus, instead of unconditionally replacing dialect with Standard English, dialect speakers who already possess elements of communication competence can be taught to incorporate Standard English into their repertoire of communication responses for use in situations where it is more appropriate.

Allen & Brown's approach may also be used to address the other aspects of communication behavior related to culture discussed in the section on "Communication Context." A teacher who is sensitive to cultural communication norms can teach students additional responses appropriate to certain situations (e.g., making eye contact in a job interview) without diminishing the importance of the student's own cultural context.

Another useful model is one developed by Joyce and Showers (1980). Although this model is offered as a means of improving inservice training for teachers, it is also applicable to developing an approach to teaching oral communication. The basis of Joyce and Showers' model is that "organized knowledge that is not backed up by the acquisition of principles and skills and the ability to use them is likely to have little effect" (p. 380). Using this concept for training, these authors surveyed the literature and found the following major components existent, singularly or in combination, in most training programs, with the most effective programs including

several or all components:

1. Presentation of theory or description of skill or strategy;
2. Modeling or demonstration of skills or models of teaching;
3. Practice in simulated and classroom settings;
4. Structured and open-ended feedback (provision of information about performance);
5. Coaching for application (hands-on, in-classroom assistance with the transfer of skills and strategies to the classroom) (p. 380).

Using this model, the teaching of oral communication would include: (1) presentation of a concept or skill (e.g., discussion of non-verbal communication); (2) modeling or demonstration of skills (e.g., demonstration good vs. poor eye contact); (3) practice in simulated settings (e.g., roleplaying or other activities involving non-verbal behavior); (4) giving feedback (feedback may be given by the students themselves on their own performance, as well as by teacher and peers); and (5) coaching for application (coaching by teacher and peers to assist the students in adding new responses to their repertoires). Thus, this model gives students the opportunity to learn about the communication process while allowing them to build skills and practice new behaviors. Self and peer

feedback and coaching are excellent ways for students to apply their knowledge of communication concepts, and practice allows students to master competent performance.

A final issue related to general approaches to teaching oral communication is that of the integration of oral communication with other academic areas (Del Polito, 1980). Many authors feel that in addition to creating a specific oral communication curriculum, oral communication activities should be incorporated into the instruction of literature, social studies, science and mathematics. The goal of such an integration is to create an educational environment in which students may practice communicating their thoughts, ideas and feelings about what they are learning, using their skills in listening and speaking to aid in their education process.

Specific Methods and Activities. There are many types of activities which can be used in oral communication instruction. While activities specifically designated for "functional communication" practice have only recently been developed (Wood, 1977a, 1977b), it is possible to borrow activities from other areas which can be adapted to an oral communication curriculum. The following section is a selection of such activities. It includes descriptions and examples of activities for functional communication, nonverbal communication, listening, drama, and creative play, values clarification activities, referential communication games, and activities for assessment.

Functional Communication Activities

The following activities were compiled by Barbara Wood (1977a, 1977b) and are based on the model for functional communication reported in Allen and Brown (1976) (repertoire, selection of strategies, implementation of strategies, evaluation), and on the five functions of communication developed by Gordon Wells (controlling, feeling, informing, ritualizing, imagining). The activities are designed for use with grades K-12. Included here is a sample of activities for each function for grades seven and eight.

Word Power

Primary function: Controlling

Objective: Identifying specific instances of the power of words/language and analyzing the functions of words in a particular situation.

Procedures: Without telling the class what you are doing, give a series of quick commands, such as "Sally, open the door so we can have some air." "John, would you come here?" "Class, open your books to page 20." Explore how and why students respond to the verbal commands given. List the reactions on the board. Extend the discussion, and ask for other examples of how words control actions and manipulate feelings in real life. Make a list of situations in which this manipulation is especially direct: for example, requesting that food be passed, selling an object, or making a purchase. Divide the class into small groups and have each group choose one situation from the list. Ask each group to create a nonsense language (make-believe words) -- no more than 25 words -- designed to permit the speaking necessary for the task. Limit the time to twenty minutes or so. Have each group demonstrate how its language works, using peers who were not in their group. Discuss together the reasons for including the words that appear on the list of each group.

Questions/follow-up:

1. What kinds of words did you make up for carrying out

the task? (R) (Possible answers might be: nouns, verbs, connection-words, and so on.)
2. What rules did you use to make up words that could be said? (R)
3. What use of tone and gesture did you make to put your idea across? (R)
4. How might your tone and gesture vary with a much younger person? A much older person? Another student? A teacher? A police officer? (S) Demonstrate. (I)
5. What kinds of words carry the power of command? (E) How do tone and gesture reinforce that power? (E)

Repertoire (R), Selection (S), Implementation (I), Evaluation (E)

Casting Your Character

Primary function: Feeling

Objective: Reporting our self-perceptions to others, verbally and nonverbally; comparing our feelings about self with the perceptions of others.

Materials: A large number of pictures from magazines, showing various well-known people, or types, such as Elton John, Fat Albert, Super-Fly, Olivia Newton-John, athletes, and models. One "Identity Search" handout for each student. (A sample of the handout follows this exercise.)

Procedures: Display the pictures. Ask the students to choose a picture that represents some aspect of the way they would answer the question, "How do you see yourself?" Let the class enjoy interacting informally during the process of selection. Distribute the handout.

Instruct the students to fold a sheet of paper in half, and write their names at the top left hand side. Assign partners, and have them write their names at the top right hand side of the sheet. Have the students answer the questions: first for self, then for their partners. Discuss the sheets in the assigned pairs. See the similarities of judgment. Discuss the differences. Reach a compromise of some sort wherever there is a difference. Bring the class together and discuss why there was agreement or disagreement. List the reasons on the board.

Questions/follow-up:
1. How many ways did some aspect of verbal or nonverbal communication contribute to the personality judgments that were made? (R)
2. When there was disagreement, how was it resolved? (S)
3. How can stereotypes such as these be useful? How can they be dangerous? (E) What can we do about them in

our own daily lives? (I)

Identity Search

Are you:
1. more like a teacher or more like a student?
2. more yes or no?
3. more religious or irreligious?
4. more political or apolitical?
5. more like the country or the city?
6. more like the present or the past?
7. more like a leader or a follower?
8. more physical or mental?
9. more an arguer or an "agree-er"?
10. more establishment or anti-establishment?
11. more like a paddle or a ping-pong ball?
12. more like a typewriter or a quill pen?
13. more like a tortoise or a hare?
14. more like velvet or suede?
15. more like meat and potatoes or dessert?

Oh, You Meant...

Primary function: Informing

Objective: Giving physical descriptions accurately; analyzing problems associated with inadequate instructions.

Materials: One set of five dominos for each student.

Procedures: Explain the domino task to the group as a whole. Select a speaker and have that person describe the arrangement of dominos the teacher has made on his or her desk. Without asking any questions or making any comments whatever, four listeners, or fewer, are to arrange their dominos in the way they understand the description given by the speaker of their group. The speaker and listeners are seated in such a way that the listeners cannot see the speaker's dominos. Divide the class into groups of five or fewer children, and let each group choose its own speaker. Arrange the dominos for the speaker and the game begins. Ask the speaker to study the domino arrangement. With his or her back to the group, the speaker is to instruct the members of the group on how to arrange their dominos. Beginning with the top domino, the speaker should describe each in succession, taking particular note of the placement relationship of each to the preceding one. No questions are allowed. Different arrangements for each group will prevent eavesdropping. When the speaker finishes instructions to the group, compare the listeners' arrangements with one another, and with the speaker's original pattern. Discuss similarities and differences.

Getting Your First Job

Primary function: Ritualizing

Objective: Recognizing and responding to the ritual aspects of the job interview situation.

Procedures: Discuss the following: Have you ever been interviewed for a job? What is the purpose of such an interview? What type of impression would you try to give? Make a list of possible interview behaviors. Discuss which of these are rituals. For example, shaking hands, "Won't you be seated?" taking turns speaking, asking and answering questions rather than conversing, "Thank you for coming in." Divide the class into pairs; one member is the interviewer, one the interviewee. Allow ten or fifteen minutes for the pairs to prepare questions and answers. Bring the group together and roleplay one or two of the interviews. Discuss each on the basis of openings, closing, manner in which questions were asked or answered, and amount of information obtained.

Questions/follow-up:

1. How did the interviews begin and end? What rituals did we see? (R)
2. Would other strategies have been better, or were these rituals helpful? (S,E)
3. How do you know when a greeting, or other phrase or action, is a ritual and when it isn't? (S,E)

Nonverbal Builders

Primary function: Imagining

Objective: Nonverbally creating an imaginary scene; analyzing the ways in which words and actions can be used to represent reality.

Procedures: Advise students that they are going to build and furnish a room. Each student will add some feature to the room or its furnishings, both verbally and physically. For example, the first student could say, "I am building a room, and the first thing I'll put in it is a rocking chair." The student then begins to rock, but must do it in complete silence. The next student might say, "I am building a room, and I am putting in a window." The student may polish the window and look out of it, again in complete silence. These activities are cumulative -- that is, the first student continues to rock as the second student polishes, and so forth, until everyone in the class is silently busy at something. The activity should go quickly. After all students act out their addition to the room, stop the experience and discuss it. "What was real?" "How do words relate to reality?" "How do actions relate to reality?" "Can

either words or actions tell all about reality?" "Can both?" "Can words and actions be used to create a reality that is not real?"

Questions/follow-up:

1. What actions best represented what students said? How could these actions be classified? Were they imitations, suggestions, symbols, or stereotypes? (R,E)
2. How else could we have put across our "imagining"? For example, what about using music, dance, or painting? Compare these kinds of communication with what you did. (E)

(The above exercises were taken from Wood, 1977b, pp. 11-18.)

Nonverbal Communication Activities

The following activities were taken from Wiemann and Wiemann (1975). Each activity focuses on a different aspect of nonverbal communication including: vocal cues, personal space, and environment, face and eyes, and body movement and orientation.

Guess How I Feel

Objective: To provide practice in the development of vocal cues and the recognition of appropriate vocal cues for emotions, situations, and the like.

Exercise: Explain to the children that they are going to play a game in which they will be talking loudly and softly and in many different manners. They are going to try to express to the others a variety of emotions such as tension, anger, excitement, and serenity (vary the emotions based upon the age group -- provide a situation rather than just an emotion-word for the younger students). However, they are not going to be able to tell the others about it but must get it across in one of the following ways:

1. By counting from 1 to 10
2. By singing "La la la la la la la la" or "Do re mi fa sol la ti do"
3. By saying only the words "Bang, bang, bang..."
4. By saying only the words "Sleep, sleep, sleep..."

The child who is doing the talking should be behind some sort of screen or turn to the wall so that facial cues cannot be seen by

the other students.

Discussion: What emotions were the hardest to get across? Why? What did the most successful students do to make their classmates guess the emotion? Was it harder to express excitement when saying "sleep"? (Or serenity when saying "bang"?) What vocal cues seemed to signal each emotion?

Back Me Up If You Can

Objective: To help the children become aware of the concept of "personal" or "conversational" space.

Exercise: (1) Pick two students from the class, give them titles A and B, and give them cards A and B, respectively. (2) Distribute the Observation Sheet to the class, but give the students no hints as to what will occur. Tell them that some of them will get to be persons A and B later on but that none of them should make any sounds while A and B are talking.

Observation Sheet

You are to watch students A and B when they come into the room. Do not make any signs or noises, but watch the movements they make as they talk to one another. Make notes about their movements on this sheet.

Student A

You are going to be talking to student B about the school and the teachers and the students (even the principal or recess if you want to). VERY SLOWLY, without student B noticing, you should try to get closer to or "move in" on person B. If you can, force student B to back up without student B catching on to what you are trying to do, you score one point and will get to play this role again.

Student B

You are going to be talking to student A about school (teachers, classes, students, recess, the principal, etc.). Try to keep student A talking, and watch the movements of student A's arms and hands and the way student A moves his or her body.

Discussion: Let the exercise progress. If student A scores a point, let that student continue in the role; if, after one or two minutes, student A fails to score a point, give another student a chance. Continue until a good number of students have had a chance to participate. Then explain the game to the class. If one student scores a large number of points, that fact will provide for interesting discussion in itself. Discuss why certain students did or did not move backwards, when and why

student B became aware of student A's purpose or actions, and what eye and body behaviors were observed by different members of the class during the exercise.

Variations: If the students are older and/or have some experience in observing nonverbal behavior and conducting conversations, they might be divided into triads, the third person in each group being the equivalent of the whole class (with the Observation Sheet) in the exercise just described.

Who Would You Pick?

Objective: To help the students identify nonverbal cues in facial expressions which influence many important decisions.

Exercise: Cut out pictures of children's faces from magazines and newspapers: get a variety of facial expressions and be sure to have differences of sex, color, hair length, and so forth. Number the pictures and put them up on a bulletin board or wall. Have children complete the following questionnaire by putting the number of the picture in the appropriate blank.

Who Would You Pick?

1. To have as a boyfriend? _____
2. To have as a girlfriend? _____
3. To play with at recess? _____
4. To be the president of the class? _____
5. To go to the principal with you? _____
6. To introduce to your parents? _____
7. To be lost in the woods with? _____
8. To play ball with? _____
9. To help you with your homework? _____
10. To be the one who would always tell the truth? _____
11. To be the one who stole the candy from the store? _____
12. To be the one who was involved in a fight? _____

Discussion: What influenced decisions, what decisions were harder than others to make, and how much did the "judges" agree with one another as to which face they would like for what? Lead discussion to make children aware of the nonverbal cues in faces and eyes that influence decisions we make and decisions that are made about us.

"Down Deep" Feelings

Objective: To observe and develop an awareness of nonverbal behaviors associated with certain attitudes.

Exercise: This exercise should be conducted after the class has a basic awareness of what constitutes a nonverbal behavior, or it can be used as a warm-up exercise after which the teacher can

launch into a discussion of what constitutes nonverbal behavior. Divide the class in half and arrange to have one half of the class where the other half cannot hear them. Tell the students in the separated half (A) that they will be paired up with members of the other half of the class and that they are to talk about a mutually agreeable topic (which can be decided upon by the whole class prior to this exercise) with that person; but, during the discussion, the A's are to show that they feel generally nervous about talking to the others (as a variation, have them act generally unfriendly or friendly, or as if they are not feeling well, etc.). To the other half of the class (B), give instructions to talk with the A's and to observe very carefully their posture, distance from them, arm and body positions, eye and face movements, and so forth. Afterwards, see if the B's can figure out how the A's felt under each condition, that is, nervous, friendly, or the like.

Discussion: Did the B's make similar observations about the A's under the same circumstances? How did the A's think the B's reacted to their behavior? What were the nonverbal behaviors associated with the general attitudes of nervousness and the like?

Variation: Use only part of the class under each condition described and have the rest take turns being the observers.

(Taken from Wiemann & Wiemann, 1975, pp. 27-31)

Listening Activities

The following examples were taken from Wolvin and Coakley (1979). These authors include 38 activities focusing on various aspects of listening such as: attention, auditory discrimination, paralanguage, nonverbal behavior, listening for meaning and ideas, following directions, appreciative listening, non-directive listening and listening with understanding.

Who Said What?

Objective: To provide students with the opportunity to use selective attention.

Exercise: Have three students with similar vocal quality, pitch, rate, volume, etc. sit by another student designated as the listener. One student should sit behind the listener, one to the listener's right, and one to the listener's left. The three students -- discussing different topics -- should speak to

the listener simultaneously for three minutes. Afterward, the listener should record on paper what he or she actually comprehended from the one-way conversations. Repeat this exercise using two senders instead of three.

Discussion: Did the listener become frustrated? How could the class tell? Did the listener comprehend comments made by all three senders? Did the listener apply selective attention and listen to only one of the senders? Was it more difficult for the listener to listen to three senders than to two? In the students' daily lives, how many senders can they attend to at a given time? To how many can they give their full attention?

A Word Is Just A Word

Objective: To make students aware of loaded words or phrases that interfere with their listening effectiveness.

Exercise. Have students list words and phrases that trigger a surge of emotion within them. Have them read their words and phrases (or you can collect and compile their lists and distribute the composite list to the class).

Discussion: Is there a variety of words and phrases? Are there any similarities among the words and phrases? Can they be categorized under the few headings (for example, racial slurs, obscenities, parental criticisms, etc.)? Why do certain words arouse personal antagonism in so many people? Why do these words and phrases affect the listeners as they do? How do they affect students' listening efficiency? What can listeners do to help moderate their reactions to emotion-laden words and phrases?

Drama and Creative Play

There are numerous opportunities for communication practice using drama and creative play activities. These activities include practice in tone, pitch, diction, nonverbal communication, imagination, concentration, organization, communication of content and affect, improvisation, and listening. Activities are available in already existing curriculum guides for drama classes and need only to be adapted to the oral communication format.

The following activities are from the Eugene Oregon

Elementary English Project (1971):

Speech I

Objectives: To communicate different moods through sound. To practice speaking.

Speech Exercise 1

Concept: Intensity, tone, pitch and rhythm communicate moods.

Procedure: Everyone walk around the room saying "No" to people as you meet them. Each time try to say "No" in a different way.

Evaluate: How many different ways to say "No" did you find? Did the meaning change? What does the voice do to change the meaning?

Speech Exercise 2

Concept: The attitude of the audience affects the nature of the performance.

Procedure: Group the children in pairs. "A" is to say a few words or a sentence. It can be anything he wishes to say. "B" is to react as if that is the funniest thing he ever heard in his life. Absolutely hysterical. Then "B" says something. "A" laughs, applauds, etc. They repeat back and forth several times without stopping.

Speech II

Objective: To express feelings through variation of vocal tone, pitch and rate of speed.

Speech Warm-up

Concept: Content is expressed in tone, pitch and words.

Procedure: 1. Tell me if you can hear what kind of mood I am in by listening to some sounds I am going to make. (Use a series of repetitive syllables, such as bum-bum-bum-bum. Say them in a lilting, joyful manner. The children should close their eyes or you can face away from them.) What kind of mood do you think I am in? You try it. All you say is bum-bum-bum-bum. But make it sound as if you are happy. (Have them try this together a few times.)
2. Now use the same sounds but make them sound as if you are scared.
3. Use the same sounds, but say them angrily.
(Suggest that they remember a time when they really were scared

or angry. The more specifically they recall a situation, the truer their vocal sounds will be.)

Additional Activities

1. In pairs, have each try to convey a particular mood to his partner, using voices but not recognizable words.

2. Suggest that the children imagine that they are from a foreign country and cannot speak or understand the other person's language. One person is trying to find some place to get food. The children can also think of other situations they might be in.

(Taken from the Eugene Oregon Elementary English Project, 1971, pp. 30-31; 37-38).

Suggestions for drama and creative play activities are also offered in Possien (1969). This author differentiates between creative play and creative dramatics as follows:

> Creative play is thought of as the natural expression of children with no set dramatic form. It may concern riding in a train, playing in a mud puddle, or crossing the street at a busy corner. It has no defined beginning. Creative dramatics, on the other hand, has a well-defined dramatic form involving a beginning, a strong story element, a climax and a conclusion (p. 36).

Possien also outlines a development program for creative dramatics including simple pantomime, dramatic play without dialog, dramatic play with dialog, and story dramatization.

The first step is pantomime. There are many activities appropriate for pantomime which come from students' familiar experience. Possien suggests the following:

1. Walking to school in the rain.
2. Finding ants in the picnic food.
3. Looking for seashells.
4. Helping mother wash the dishes.
5. Walking in cold water.

6. Making cookies (pp. 44-45).

Children can also pantomime characters from stories and television, or sensory experiences such as eating an apple, hearing noises at night, or smelling a rose. Discussion about pantomime activities can illustrate the aspects of communicating without using words.

The second level of the creative dramatics program proposed by Possien is dramatic play. This involves acting out longer situations in which the action is sustained and sequential, and the students have defined roles. As with pantomime, the action takes place without words; meaning is conveyed through body movement and facial expression. Examples of situations for creative dramatics include a birthday party, a train trip, a trip to the grocery store, the first day at a new school, or planning a party.

The next step in the developmental program involves introducing dialog. Possien suggest using similar situations as for creative dramatics, and allowing students to create dialog from the situation.

The final step is story dramatization. This combines all of the above elements with structure, setting, plot, characterization and scripted dialog. Students can dramatize stories they know or they can create their own stories.

In oral communication instruction, creative dramatics can be helpful in working with problem areas in communication situations relevant to the students. For example, students can

enact "a successful job interview;" they can even act out "being nervous while waiting for a job interview."

These kinds of exercises can make students aware of their feelings in tense communication situations as well as making them aware of how such feelings affect their behavior. Scripted dialog can provide students with an opportunity to learn new communication strategies which could be added to their repertoires.

Values Clarification Strategies

Values clarification strategies have been used widely in the classroom over the past several years. These strategies were designed to help students explore their values in such areas as politics, school, family, friends, race, sex, money, aging, rules and authority. The approach to values clarification commonly used is based on the work of Louis Raths (1966, in Simon, Howe & Kirschenbaum, 1972), and is concerned "not with the content of people's values but with the process of valuing" (Simon, et. al., 1972). According to Raths, valuing is based on the following principles:

PRIZING one's beliefs and behaviors

1. prizing and cherishing
2. publicly affirming, when appropriate

CHOOSING one's beliefs and behaviors

3. choosing from alternatives
4. choosing after consideration of consequences

5. choosing freely

ACTING on one's beliefs

6. acting

7. acting with a pattern, consistency and repetition

(Simon, et. al., 1972, p. 19)

Many aspects of Rath's model for the valuing process (choosing from alternatives, considering consequences, acting) coincide with Allen and Brown's model for the competent communication process (selecting strategies from a repertoire, implementing strategies, evaluating performance). Thus, values clarification strategies can be easily adapted for use in oral communication instruction. The 78 values clarification strategies outlined in Simon, et. al. (1972) offer students the opportunity to explore issues relevant to them, to communicate feelings, ideas and opinions about these issues, to make decisions, and to discuss often-controversial choices. The exercises are also valuable for illustrating the communication process, as students observe and discuss what happens in the communication of values, opinions, and feelings, and learn strategies for reaching concensus and conflict resolution.

The following is an example of a values clarification strategy adapted by Wood (1977b) for teaching functional communication (other strategies can be found in Simon, et. al., 1972):

Coat of Arms

Primary function: Informing

Objective: Sharing information, using both verbal and nonverbal means, to allow others to know better our interests and goals.

Materials: None, unless the teacher wishes to use visual aids in an introductory presentation on heraldry.

Procedures: Give a short presentation on heraldry and its history. Have students design their own individual coat of arms. It should be stressed that this is not to be a family coat of arms that may already be known to the student, but one which he or she devises for personal symbolism. This coat of arms should have at least three symbols, one each from the student's past, present, and future. More symbols may be used, but not fewer. Students draw their coat of arms with the thought that it will be explained in an oral presentation to the class. (Examples: past -- pitchfork, indicating a family history of farming; present -- tennis racket, or a horse, indicating current interest; future -- violin, indicating a desire to become a concert violinist upon graduation from school.) Ask students to make oral presentations with their coat of arms as visual aids, thus introducing themselves in an informative way. Each symbol should be discussed, not merely identified. For example, "Why did you choose these items over all others as important to you?" "How did you become interested in these things?" "Why have you pictured your future in this way?" "Is any part of your past important to your future?"

Questions/follow-up:

1. What special presentation techniques can be identified from the speeches that were given, such as introductions, justifications, summaries, and uses of a visual aid? (R)
2. List as many effective uses of visual aids as you can, from the speeches that were given. (E,S) Why did you like these? (E)
3. How could improvement be made in the ways information was presented? (E)

Repertoire (R), Selection (S), Implementation (I), Evaluation (E).

(Taken from Wood, 1977b, pp. 21-22).

Referential Communication Games

Referential communication activities focus on the "informing" function of communication. Many of these tasks come from research in developmental psychology. According to Dickson and Patterson (1979):

> In referential communication tasks one person attempts to communicate with another person about a target referent in a set of alternatives. Usually, the two participants sit on opposite sides of a table with a screen between them. The listener's task is to attempt to choose the referent described by the speaker. Communication accuracy is defined according to the correctness of the listener's choices. The person-to-person interaction may involve questioning and requires the participants to continually monitor their own comprehension. Typical tasks include telling how to assemble a model from blocks, how to choose one of a set of pictures, and how to trace a route on a map (pp. 11-12).

The following is a referential communication activity which was adapted by Wolvin and Coakley (1979) for use in listening instruction:

Mine is Different

Objective: To demonstrate to students that two-way verbal communication is more effective than one-way verbal communication.

Exercise: Ask for one volunteer to be the message sender. Give him or her a copy of three simple drawings, and have him or her mentally plan how to give directions to the students who will reproduce the drawings on their papers. Give each student two sheets of unlined 8 1/2-by-11-inch paper. Have students divide their papers into thirds and draw lines where their folds are. They should use pencils with erasers for this exercise.

One at a time, the sender should accurately describe (verbally only) his or her three drawings. Drawings should be simple . . . The students are to execute each drawing according to the sender's directions. Students cannot ask questions or look at others' papers. After each drawing has been completed, students should place a C (for correct) by each drawing they think has been accurately drawn. The sender is then given a copy of three other simple drawings, and he or she again gives directions as the students draw. This time, however, students may ask questions to make sure they are accurately following directions; the sender (again without giving nonverbal directions) can orally answer their questions. Students are to place a C by each drawing they think they have accurately drawn. The sender is to show the class his or her drawings; students are to check their drawings for accuracy (size, proportion, positioning, etc.).

Discussion: How many of the drawings that students thought were

accurately drawn actually were? Does one-way verbal communication (as exemplified in the directions for the first three drawings) or two-way communication (as exemplified in the directions for the second three drawings) take longer to present? Why? Which way of communicating is more accurate? Which is more frustrating to the sender? Which is more frustrating to the receivers? When in their daily lives do students participate as senders and/or as receivers in one-way communication? How important is feedback?

(Taken from Wolvin & Coakley, 1979, pp. 18-19).

Assessment Activities

The following activities were recommended by various authors for use in assessment of oral communication. All authors suggest using activities which simulate realistic and relevant communication situations.

The Massachusetts Department of Education describes four tasks which can be used to assess speaking in one-to-one situations. The first is a description task which asks the student to describe a favorite class or activity in detail. The second task requires the students to respond to an emergency situation by imagining that they are calling the fire department to report a fire. The third task is a sequence task which requires the students to explain with step-by-step directions the procedure for cooking a food which they know how to prepare (e.g., cooking popcorn, making eggs). The final task, a persuasion task, requires the students to roleplay persuading their principal to change a school rule.

Brown, et. al. (1979) offer the following tasks for the assessment of speaking skills:

Ask for and give straightforward information:

1. Tell how you would direct a visitor to the school office (or some other site).
2. Tell how you would explain to a new student a school policy regarding tardiness, dress code or some other regulation.
3. Tell what you would ask to find out how to join a record club, how to get to the swimming pool, etc.
4. Tell how you would explain a homework assignment to a student who was absent.

Describe objects, events, experiences:

1. Describe to another student how she/he would find a particular book among a number of other books in your locker.
2. Describe to a fellow student an event that you attended recently, e.g., a sports event, a concert, a party.
3. Describe to a new student different places they can go for fun and recreation.

Question other's viewpoint:

1. Question a fellow student on his/her interpretation of a book, movie, TV program she/he read or saw recently.
2. Question someone's position on a school policy, a given value, or tradition.
3. Question an opinion you heard stated on TV or read somewhere.

Using survival words:

1. Tell what you would do if you smelled smoke in the

classroom. Would you say anything? If so, what and to whom?

2. Tell what you would do if you saw a friend accidently hit on the head and pass out. Would you say anything? If so, what and to whom?
3. Tell what you would do if you saw a young child walking into a path of a moving car. Would you say anything? If so, what and to whom?

Speak so listener understands purpose:

1. Use the telephone to invite a friend to a party, to obtain a job interview, to order a product, to persuade a friend to go to a school or non-school event.
2. Talk to the teacher for different purposes, i.e., to get information on a homework assignment, to share a joke or anecdote, to question a grade (Brown, et. al., 1979, pp. 68-69).

Other activities for assessment can include simulated job interviews, public hearings or other persuasive communication tasks (Rubin, 1981).

The aim of this chapter has been to give the reader a sampling of some of the methods and activities which can be used in oral communication assessment and instruction. Many other activities exist which are well suited for adaptation to an oral communication curriculum. It is important for developers of curriculum to use methods and activities which are relevant and

sensitive to student's communication needs and styles and which reflect a wide range of communication situations.

CONCLUSION

The recent interest in oracy as a basic educational skill has led to questions on how to teach and assess oral communication. While researchers, theoreticians and practitioners have recognized the need to focus more attention on oral communication skills in the classroom, there are varied ideas on how this is to be done. Numerous conceptualizations of the nature of oral communication and of effective oral communication programs exist; this paper has outlined some of the more salient models.

The most recent models view oral communication as a complex process influenced by a number of variables such as context (situation, topic, audience, and culture), function or purpose, and ability. These variables interact in such a way that it is difficult to isolate single components which are more important, or to view oral communication from a linear perspective.

This view suggests that models for teaching oral communication should be process oriented. Many authors recommend teaching students about the process of communication in addition to strengthening skills in particular content areas. Such an approach would allow students to look at what is happening while they communicate in addition to giving them opportunities to practice communicating in a variety of contexts and functions.

An advantage of this type of teaching model is that it recognizes and allows for the varied communication abilities that students already possess. Students are viewed as possessing a repertoire of communication skills. Oral communication instruction entails allowing students to expand their repertoires and teaching them to evaluate communication situations so that they can effectively use the skills which they possess.

Thus, the model has a positive emphasis. Students need not be viewed as deficient; they need only to learn new strategies to add to their repertoires to make them more effective communicators in certain communication contexts. For example, instead of viewing a non-standard English speaker as a poor communicator, one recognizes that there are situations where dialect is a more effective communication strategy, while Standard English may be more effective in other contexts.

Another advantage of this model is that it is not static. Because the model emphasizes sensitivity to personal abilities and interpersonal contexts, there are limitless opportunities for developing awareness and communication skills. Thus, oral communication teachers need not be communication "experts." They need only to be aware of the communication process, sensitive to students' communication needs and interests, and open to learning more about oral communication with their students.

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